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ABSTRACT

A proposal is presented for attracting, retaining, and motivating effective educators and increasing student performance in Arizona. Written by the Arizona Education Association, the proposal targets three areas crucial to effective education: (1) professional growth and evaluation; (2) school environment; and (3) compensation. Part one of this report summarizes research findings pertinent to the quality education movement in Arizona. Part two summarizes the approach by the Arizona Education Association to education reform, and presents a model for a career development system for Arizona teachers. The third part elaborates upon the model by considering implications for the three targeted areas of change. Part four examines compensation issues and proposes a set of legislative recommendations. (CB)

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CAREER DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM

A Proposal to Attract, Retain, and Motivate Quality Educators and to Increase Student Performance in the State of Arizona

- Professional Growth/Evaluation
- School Environment
- Compensation

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AEA/NEA Research
February 1986

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AEA thanks the Tucson Education Association for their contribution to this report. TEA's Job Analysis study validated the "Work of the Teacher" research.

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Introduction

For over two years, Americans have engaged in a spirited debate over the quality of education offered by our nation's public schools. The debate has covered a range of subjects, generated many reform initiatives, and emphasized always the importance of teachers.

The Arizona Education Association (AEA) supports the quality education movement in Arizona. This support is based on the belief that education reform should attend to the question of how compensation and a school environment support or hinder effective instruction, constructive relationships between teachers and students, collegial relationships among teachers, growth opportunities for teachers, and the proper role of school administrators.

The AEA believes that teachers are important. Therefore, AEA supports the reform objectives to:

- ATTRACT high quality and more individuals into the teaching profession.
- RETAIN good teachers in the profession.
- MOTIVATE teachers to improve teaching skills.

The AEA also believes that the most effective approach to education reform will be based on the best education research available and will target three areas crucial to quality education. The areas are:

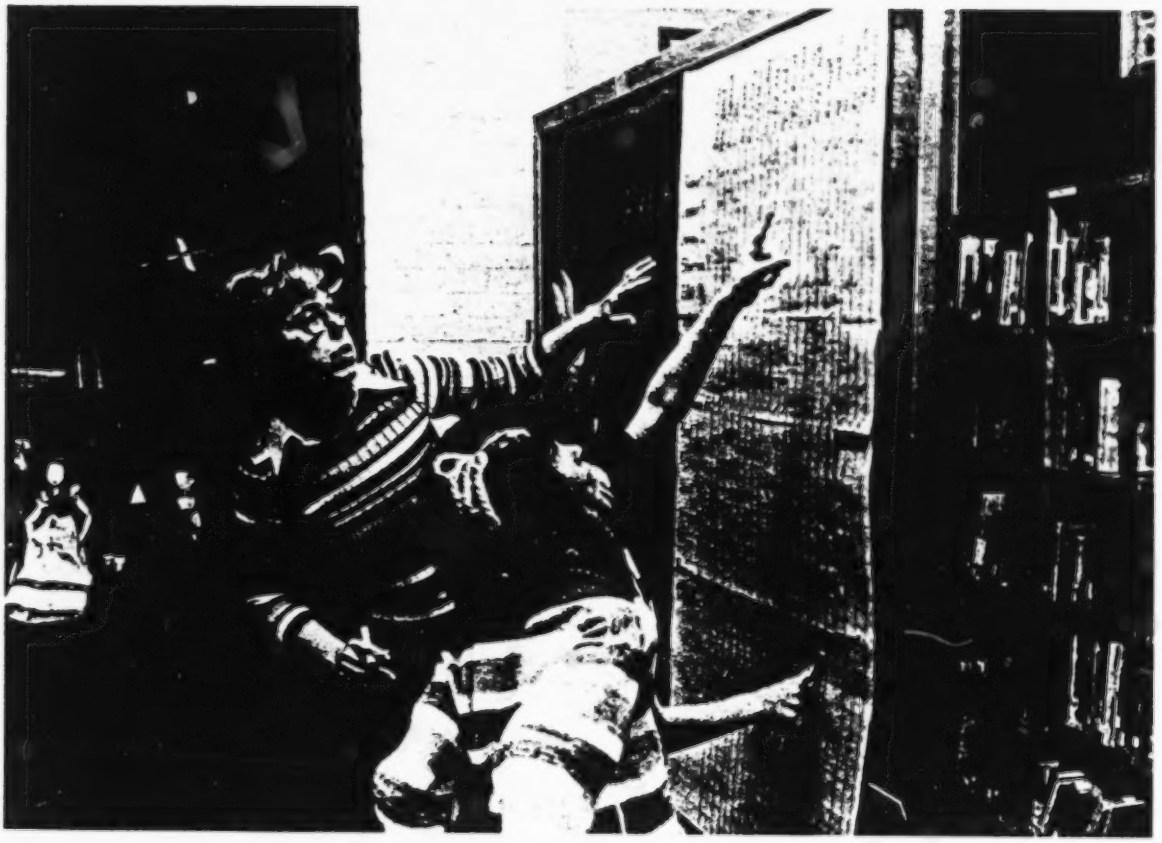
- Professional growth and evaluation
- School environment
- Compensation

In keeping with these objectives and an approach based on research and targeted areas, the AEA has prepared "Career Development System: A Proposal to Attract, Retain, and Motivate Quality Educators and To Increase Student Performance in the State of Arizona." The proposal is presented in four parts.

- Part I summarizes research findings pertinent to the quality education movement in Arizona.
- Part II summarizes an AEA approach to education reform and presents a model for a career development system for Arizona teachers.
- Part III elaborates upon the model by considering implications for each of the three targeted areas of change.
- Part IV examines several compensation issues and proposes a set of legislative recommendations.

PART I

Research Says:



Teacher Shortage

Point 1: A Teacher Shortage Has Begun

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) estimates that the supply of new teacher graduates began to fall below the projected demand for additional teachers after 1984 and will result in a 20% shortfall by 1989.

Point 2: Demographics Contribute To The Shortage

NCES expects enrollment levels to increase slowly as large numbers of young children enter school. By 1993, total enrollment is projected to increase 7 percent over 1983 levels. More teachers will be needed to meet this increased enrollment as well as to replace retiring teachers. The National Research Council has estimated that 40 percent of today's teachers will retire by 1995.

Point 3: Salary Levels Contribute To The Shortage

Beginning salaries for public school teachers are not competitive with salaries offered to comparably educated graduates by private industry.

Point 4: Teaching Has Lost Its Captive Labor Force

Traditionally the teaching profession has had a fairly captive labor force. Teaching was one of the few professional careers open to women. Law, medicine, and business have become more accessible to women, however, and women have responded by filling the classrooms of these professional training programs rather than those of teacher training programs. The movement of women into other professional areas has certainly contributed to the decreasing number of teacher education graduates as a percent of BA and first professional degree graduates.

Point 5: **Poor Working Conditions Outweigh Intrinsic Appeal Of Teaching**

Charles Kerchner, in "Shortages and Gluts of Public School Teachers: There Must Be a Policy Problem Here Somewhere," surmises that the falling intrinsic appeal of teaching is a primary cause of the shortage. A large number of teachers are actively dissatisfied with their working conditions and salary which outweigh the traditional intrinsic appeal of teaching. Increasing numbers say they would make other choices if they could.

Point 6: **To Some, The Shortage Problem Is One Of Quality**

The evidence is strong that the portion of college-trained graduates going into teaching is less academically capable today than it was a generation ago. (Kerchner, 1984.) Evidence to support this argument, however, is based largely on standardized test scores on college admission tests such as the SAT.

The SAT and other similar tests are taken in high school and are used as predictors of performance in college. Their use in particular has been as a predictor of performance during the freshman year. They were not designed to predict teaching performance or performance in any other professional occupation.

The academic ability of young people entering teacher-training programs and ultimately the profession itself is of great concern to the Association. But the Association hastens to add that teacher performance in the classroom is far more complex than that suggested by a SAT test score.

Salary Comparisons

CURRENT TEACHER SALARIES

Point 1: Arizona Ranks 20th*

The average salary of public school teachers nationally for the 1984-85 school year is $23,582.

The average salary of Arizona teachers is $23,380.

Point 2: Arizona Rank Will Fall

Without inflation adjustments or raises, Arizona teachers can expect their average salary to fall on the index. This is likely to occur as more districts and states in the nation increase teachers' salaries across the board and raise beginning teachers' salaries in particular. As of spring 1985, eighteen states had enacted legislation to raise teachers' salaries, many with across-the-board increases.

Average starting salaries for public school teachers are not available from NEA Research or from any other statistical service agency, public or private. Average starting salaries are likely rising, most notably in California and New Jersey which have raised the minimum starting salary for public school teachers to $18,000 per year. Should this trend continue, the average salary for teachers nationally will rise, and the average salary for teachers in Arizona will fall accordingly unless adjustments are made state-wide.

Point 3: $16,917 Is Part Of The Story

The 1985-86 average beginning salary for Arizona teachers is $16,917. This figure is based on the salary average of approximately 6,000 teachers actually hired this year in Arizona at the BA level, step one. This figure is currently used by legislative groups as well as by the AEA.

The $16,917 figure, however, is an average that conceals lower starting salaries in many Arizona districts. When starting salaries at the BA level, step one are averaged for approximately 220 districts in the state, then the starting salary in Arizona is $16,547.

* The revised national average salary for teachers is $23,534 in 1984-85 and $25,257 in 1985-86. The revised Arizona average salary for teachers is $24,680 in 1985-86. Rankings of the states for average teachers salaries are not yet available from NEA Research.

COMPENSATION COMPARISONS JUSTIFIED

Point 4: Hours Of Work Are Comparable

A persistent misconception about the teaching profession and its comparability with other occupations concerns hours of work. The perception is that teachers on average work fewer hours per year than workers in private industry, and lower salaries for teachers are, therefore, appropriate.

According to available data on hours worked (compensated and noncompensated), teachers do not differ significantly from employees in other occupations. Research on this subject shows:

- An average work day for classroom teachers is equivalent to that for other occupations. In fact, a majority of teachers reported that their typical work day is 8 hours or more.

- While most teachers work a standard 40-hour week, most teachers also report an average of 9 hours a week of school-related activity for which they are not paid. Nearly 50 percent of teachers surveyed reported non-compensated hours to exceed 10 hours per week. This does not include the many summer activities in which teachers participate.

Point 5: The Work-Year Argument Is Weak

- Teachers, unlike employees in other occupational groups, receive no paid vacation leave. On average, workers in three broad occupational groups receive 15 to 20 days of paid vacation per year. Other occupations, on average, are paid for 10-15 holidays per year.

- The average number of paid days for the contract year for teachers is 180 working days in Arizona. The average number of days for other comparable occupations is 220.

- Attempts to justify lower teacher salaries because of fewer number of days worked ignore the issue of attraction and retention. Prorating salaries for comparable days worked does not provide more earning power. For example:

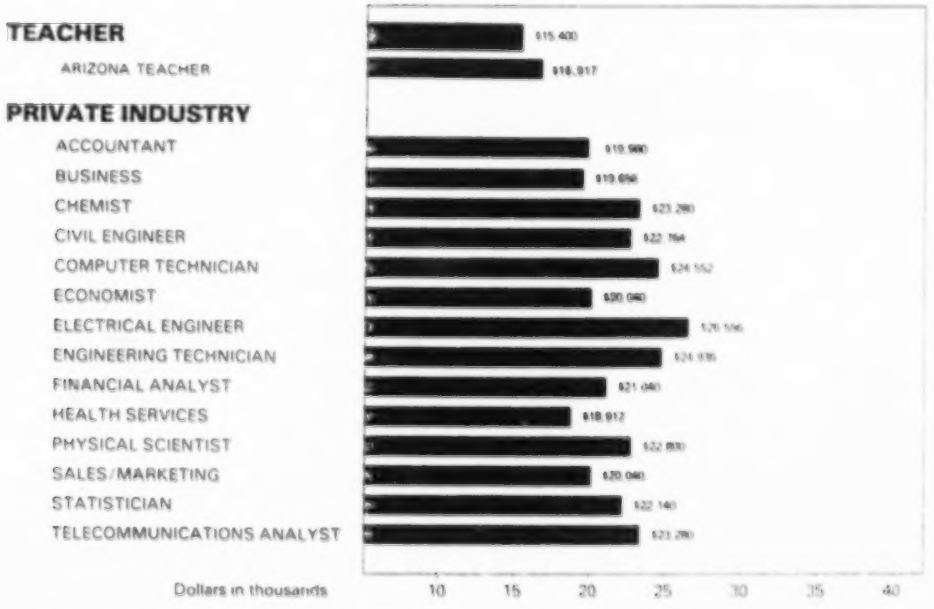
To explain to a student that he/she should enter the College of Education because the $16,900 salary is really $20,600 if prorated for an additional 40 days is not a sound position and probably will not convince the student to enter teaching.

- On-going professional growth opportunities are not available to teachers. Rather, it becomes the responsibility of each teacher to schedule time outside of the regular working day for professional growth opportunities; and most teachers pay for these experiences themselves.

Point 6: Beginning Teaching Salaries Compare Poorly

The salaries of beginning teachers in Arizona today compare poorly with salaries of professionals entering other comparable fields as can be seen in Table 1. The table shows the average starting salary of $16,917 for Arizona teachers which is below the national average starting salary of every other occupational group with which teachers are compared in the Northwestern Endicott Report. For example, one entering the health services, accounting, or electrical engineering could expect to earn respectively $1,995, $3,063, and $9,639 more than a beginning teacher in Arizona. These data do not reflect the many superior benefits or working conditions that characterize professional occupations in many other fields.

BEGINNING SALARIES—HOW TEACHERS COMPARE IN 1985-86



SOURCES: Northwest University Endicott Report
National Education Association

Beginning teaching salaries have compared poorly wit those for other occupations for many years as Table 2 shows. This table shows at four points in recent history the beginning salaries offered to bachelor's degree recipients entering various fields. The table shows that beginning teacher salaries are below those for every occupation with which teaching is compared. The lowest beginning salary in 1984-85, the last year shown, was $18,840 for Liberal Arts graduates. This salary was still $3,440 higher than the beginning salary offered to teachers.

Table 2. Beginning Teacher Salary Compared with Beginning Salaries for Other Occupations, 1973-84 to 1984-85

Occupation	1973-74	1977-78	1983-84	1984-85
Teaching	$ 7,720	$ 9,739	$ 14,500	$ 15,400
Accounting	10,824	13,056	19,452	19,884
Bus. Admin.	8,664	11,556	19,128	19,656
Chemistry	10,116	14,088	23,508	23,280
Computer	NA	13,188	23,496	22,860
Economics	9,480	11,424	19,584	20,040
Engineering	10,860	15,606	25,944	25,656
Liberal Arts	8,688	11,004	18,564	18,840
Math/Stat.	9,552	12,756	20,664	22,140
Sales/Mktg.	9,648	12,084	18,828	20,040

Sources: Teachers salaries: NEA Research
Other salaries: Northwestern Endicott Report

This table shows at four points in recent history the beginning salaries offered to bachelor's degree recipients entering various fields. The table shows that beginning teacher salaries are below those for every occupation with which teaching is compared. The lowest beginning salary in 1984-85, the last year shown, for other occupations was $18,840 for Liberal Arts graduates. This salary was still $3,440 higher than the beginning salary offered to teachers.

Point 7: Average Teaching Salaries Compare Poorly

Average teaching salaries also compare poorly with those of other occupational groups as can be seen in Table 3. The table shows the average salaries for teachers and professionals in other occupational groups for the years 1973-74, 1977-78, and 1983-84. An examination of these data reveals that teachers' disadvantageous position relative to other groups at the beginning of their careers continues as their careers progress.

Table 3. Average Salaries in Teaching and Other Occupations

Occupation	1973-74	1977-78	1983-84
Classroom Teachers	$ 10,778	$ 14,198	$ 21,935
Accountant	11,600	15,436	24,592
Buyer	12,951	16,815	26,249
Chemist	13,939	18,411	29,770
Programmer/Analyst	NA	NA	25,562
Engineer	15,252	19,741	32,223

Sources: Teacher salaries: NEA Research
Other salaries: National Survey

Point 8: Salary Inequities Appear To Be Growing

Inequities between teaching salaries and salaries of other professional groups have existed for years and are growing. This growth is shown in Table 4 which expresses as percentages higher the beginning and average salaries of other occupational groups compared with those of teachers. For example, in 1973-74, the average beginning salary for accountants was 40.2 percent higher than the average beginning salary for teachers. In that same year, the average beginning salary for chemists was 31 percent higher than that for teachers.

With the exception of accountants, the gap in beginning salaries has grown during the ten-year period from 1973-74 to 1983-84. Even though the gap has narrowed somewhat between beginning salaries of accountants and teachers, the gap remains significant at 34.2 percent higher for accountants.

The gap evident for beginning salaries persists when average salaries for the occupation groups are examined. This is particularly pronounced for engineers whose average salaries were 41.5, 39.0, and 46.9 percent higher than those for teachers for the years 1973-74, 1977-78, and 1983-84 respectively.

Table 4. Beginning and Average Salaries of Other Occupations Expressed as Percentages Higher Than Teacher Salaries, 1973-74 to 1983-84

Occupation	1973-74	1977-78	1983-84
	Beginning Salaries		
Accountant	40.2 %	34.1 %	34.2 %
Chemist	31.0	44.7	62.1
Engineer	40.7	60.2	78.9
Buyer/Business Administrator	12.2	18.7	31.9
	Average Salaries		
Accountant	7.7 %	8.7 %	12.1 %
Chemist	29.3	29.7	12.1
Engineer	41.5	39.0	46.9
Buyer/Business Administrator	20.2	18.4	19.7

Point 9: Salary Inequities Remain Throughout A Career

Table 5. Percent Increase in Beginning and Average Salaries, 1973-74 to 1983-84

Occupation	Beginning Salaries	Average Salaries
Teaching	87.8 %	103.5%
Accounting	79.7	112.0
Buyer	120.8	102.7
Chemist	132.4	113.6
Engineer	138.9	111.3

This table shows ten-year increases in starting salaries and in average salaries for teaching and other occupations. The ten-year increases in starting salaries for other professional groups contrast sharply with teachers' salaries. Only accounting at 80 percent experienced a smaller increase than teaching which was 88 percent.

These results, combined with data in the previous tables, show wide disparities between the starting salaries for classroom teachers and those for other groups. The ten-year increase in average salaries for various occupational groups suggests that the disparity in salary levels at any given point in these professions can be traced back to differences in starting salaries.

Effective Schools

A well-drawn portrait of an effective school would show many distinct features. Among these features are:

- Effective school-site management
- Instructional leadership
- Staff stability
- Curriculum articulation and organization
- Schoolwide staff development
- Parental involvement and support
- Schoolwide recognition of academic success
- Maximized learning time
- District support.

This section devoted to effective schools elaborates upon some of these features, particularly those that have been the subject of extensive research.

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLING PRACTICES

Effective schools are associated with measurable improvements in student achievement and excellent student behavior. No single variable, however, can account for effectiveness. Instead, many schooling practices influence student outcomes.

Many of these schooling practices identified in education research are summarized in Table 6 under the categories of leadership, efficacy, and efficiency. Core elements associated with each category can be regarded as goals that schools aim toward as they strive for effectiveness. Facilitating elements are practices that promote goal attainment.

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Table 6. Summary of Practices Associated With Effective Schools

Effective Practice Category	Core Elements	Facilitating Element
Leadership	• Positive school atmosphere • Goal-oriented action with clear and relevant objectives • In-service training for effective teaching • Collaborative curriculum planning and decision making	• Shared values and goals • Stability and continuity of key staff • District-level support for school improvement • Involvement of staff and others in planning and administration
Efficacy	• High, positive achievement expectations with constant press for excellence • Visible rewards for academic growth and excellence • Cooperative activity and group interaction in class • Total staff involvement with school improvement • Autonomy and flexibility to implement adaptive practices • Appropriate levels of difficulty for learning tasks	• Emphasis on homework and study • Positive accountability; acceptance of responsibility for learning outcomes • Strategies to avoid nonpromotion of students • Deemphasis of strict ability grouping; interaction with more accomplished peers

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Table 6 (continued)

Effective Practice Category	Core Elements	Facilitating Element
Efficiency	• Effective use of instructional time • Orderly, disciplined school and classroom environment • Continuous diagnosis, evaluation, feedback • Well-structured class activities • Instruction guided by content • Emphasis on basic and higher order skills	• Opportunities for individualized work • Number and variety of opportunities to learn

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EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS: MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

- Managers in effective schools provide opportunities for success through promoting teacher autonomy.
- Effective principals maintain frequent contact with staff and continuously acknowledge staff activities.
- Principals in effective schools do not seek to control what teachers do in the classroom, but instead manage key processes dealing with goal setting, monitoring and evaluation, and staff development. By encouraging teachers to participate in these processes, the principal encourages a culture of cooperation and information exchange. The principal encourages collaborative problem solving and involves the full staff in planning and implementing strategies.
- Effective principals set specific goals related to student achievement. Common goals help teachers decide what to emphasize in their teaching and how to evaluate their success.
- Effective principals remove obstacles to good teaching, e.g. preventing classroom interruptions by announcements, school assemblies, or other interruptions and provide clerical assistance for routine paperwork.
- Effective principals set class policies for student discipline that have common agreement and are consistently enforced.
- Effective principals, through clear goals, are able to dispatch support services where they are needed most, coordinate instructional programs, and bring teachers together to discuss common instructional problems.

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS: TEACHING AS A COLLEGIAL EFFORT

- Administrators and teachers in effective schools are more likely to treat education as a collegial effort, directed toward common goals, rather than as a process conducted in individual classrooms.
- There is a coherence to the efforts of those in effective schools that is not found in other schools.
- The spirit of collaboration in effective schools facilitates the process of learning to teach.

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- In effective schools, teaching is believed to be a collective rather than an individual enterprise; analysis, evaluation, and experimentation in concert with colleagues help teachers become more effective instructors. Gains in student learnings are greatest in schools where teachers are not isolated from each other.

- In effective schools, collegiality is also promoted by a clearly defined curriculum; focused classroom instruction and management; firm, consistent discipline; close monitoring of student performance; strong, instructional leadership; and frequent, professional dialogue.

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS: EVALUATION

- Effective schools use their evaluation and monitoring systems to identify both weaknesses which need to be corrected and strengths that need to be capitalized upon. Thus, they use them as diagnostic instruments, rather than as instruments designed to produce generalizations about the overall performance of individual teachers which impede the teacher's motivation and eagerness to improve.

- Summative evaluations are overall positive or negative judgments concerning teacher performance; formative evaluations analyze the elements of performance, without an overall pro or con assessment, for the purpose of improving performance.

- One of the distinguishing characteristics of effective schools is a "norm of continuous improvement" among all staff members. Principals and teachers take particular care to cultivate critical dialogue without implying that suggestions for improvement constitute challenges to a person's competence.

- Effective schools stress the importance of avoiding a "remedial" approach toward teachers and changes in their classroom practices. A developmental model as opposed to a "deficit" model is used in successful staff development programs.

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS: PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

- Professional growth vs. "inservice."

At present, inservice training for teachers is generally short-term or infrequent, not specific, designed by central administrative staff and not very effective. Traditional approaches to inservice training try to eliminate the process of professional learning with teacher-proof packages and one-shot training by outside experts. This approach conveys the message that teachers are deficient and that others know better what teachers need to improve.

- Continuous improvement vs. rigidity in teaching approaches.

- Enhance growth vs. kill motivation and eagerness.

Some would challenge the line of reasoning that teachers seek continuous improvement. There is a substantial body of research that suggests that many teachers become wedded to particular teaching approaches and resist further change after a few years of teaching. (Fortie, 1975.) Mosston (1972) calls rigidity in teaching approaches "the most painful problem in education." The observations do not contradict what we know about teachers' motivation and eagerness to improve. They indicate that it is possible, under some circumstances, to kill that motivation and eagerness -- and that many school systems do so quite effectively. (Bacharach, 1985.)

The process of professional learning is set into motion that is adoptive, concrete, tied to ongoing activities. They give teachers the skills to identify and solve problems themselves. (Nemser, 1983.)

- Part and parcel of their very work vs. special or extra expectations.

Little (1982) and Nemser (1983) imply "improvement," within the context of such a system, would not constitute a "special" or "extra" expectation of teachers; it would be part and parcel of their very work. (Bacharach, 1985.)

- Development vs. Deficit

Every teacher "needs improvement" -- not because of incapability to fulfill basic responsibilities -- because there is always room to improve knowledge and skills and because growth itself is a basic need of those in professional occupations. (Hallman and Oldham, 1980.)

Teachers need not be weak in order to become strong. (Hutson, 1979.)

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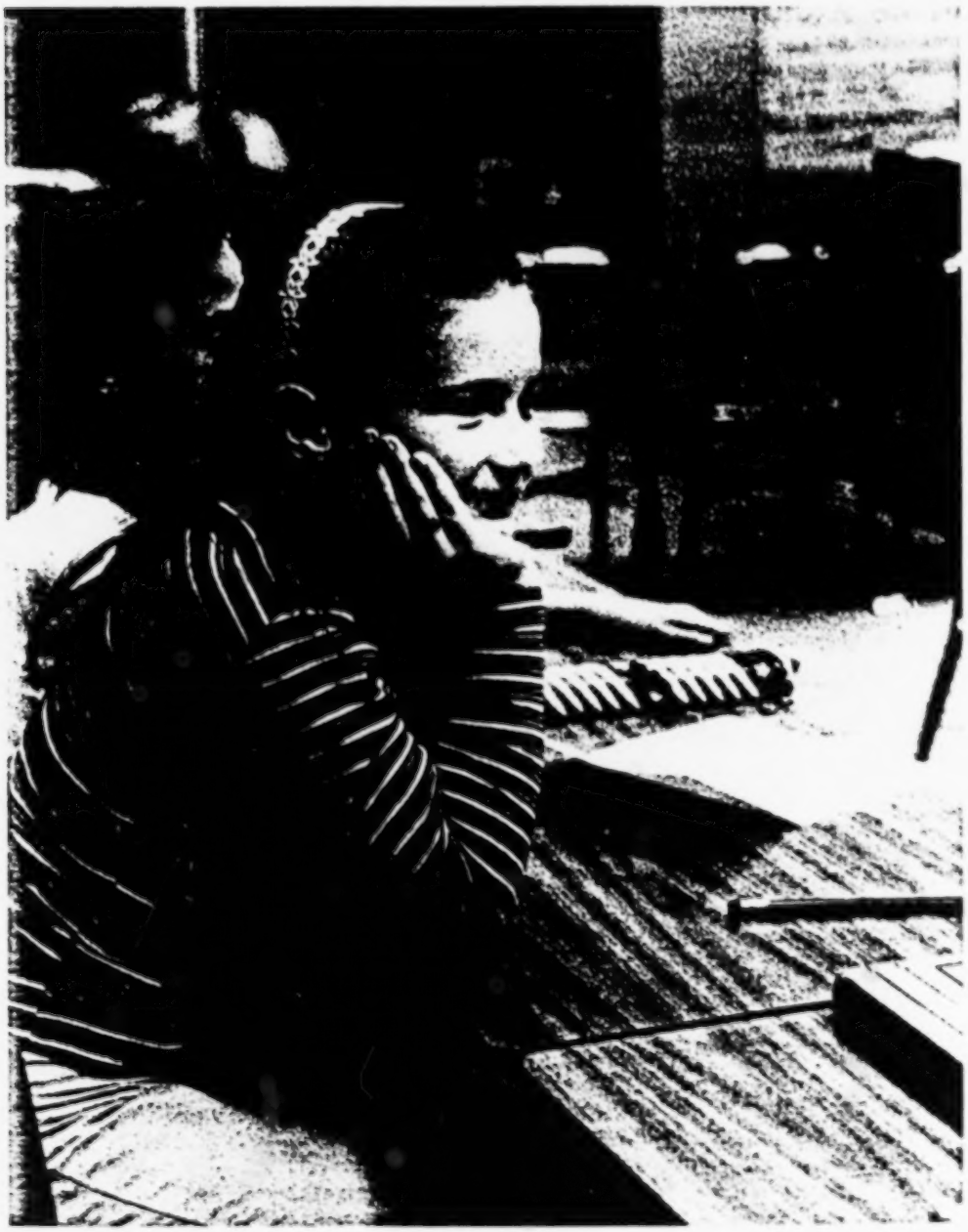
Importance of intrinsic motivation -- teachers eager to learn new skills, open to new methods and ideas, and "thriving" on new discoveries. (Burden, 1982; Unruh and Turner, 1970; Gregore, 1973.)



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Attraction, Retention, Motivation

The education reform movement of the 1980s has focused on teachers and issues of attraction, retention, and motivation. The subjects of attraction, retention, and motivation have been addressed by education research, and research findings are summarized below.

ATTRACTION

- The decision to enter any occupation is shaped by three major factors (Rosenholtz, 1984):

  1. Personal definitions of career success.
  2. The availability of professional alternatives that satisfy that definition.
  3. The feasibility of those alternatives.

- Teachers explain their decision to enter teaching by citing the importance of working with students and facilitating student learning. (Rosenholtz and Smylie, 1983.)

- Other service occupations (such as medicine or law) are now more feasible for people who once chose teaching (affirmative action programs). (Rosenholtz, 1984.)

- Low starting salary is outweighing the intrinsic attraction of teaching. (Bacharach, 1985.)

- The stability of career earnings is critical in attracting people into teaching.

- People who consider teaching, but choose other occupations cite low salary and low status major reasons for seeking alternatives. (Rosenholtz and Smylie, 1983.)

- Base pay is a powerful factor in attracting people to an occupation. (Bacharach.)

- Indirect compensation will attract people to an occupation to some degree and to a much lesser degree than base pay.

- It is reasonable to suppose that the prospect of career advancement only after some 7 to 14 years of successful

service would dampen the spirit of most enthusiastic prospective teachers. The assumption that beginning teachers will delay gratification from their work until they are eligible for promotion and raises through incentive pay is not likely unless they are a good deal less remote. (Rosenholtz, 1984.)

The teaching profession is attracting fewer individuals as enrollments are increasing.

1) Teacher education graduates as a percent of BA and first professional degree graduates has decreased from 35.7% in 1970-71 to 14.0% in 1980-81. (NCES Reports on Earned degrees and Projections of Education Statistics and NEA Research of Teacher Supply and Demand.)

2) Actual population distribution and projections from 1980 to 1989 for Arizona children in grades K-8 is increasing by 25% (430,000 to 540,000) and in grades 9-12 is decreasing by 3.5% (253,000 to 244,000). The total increase for 1986 is estimated at 6%. (Arizona Department of Economic Security Population Statistics.)

3) There is a growing teacher shortage. The shortage is reflected in Table 7.

Table 7. Past and Projected Trends in Estimated Demand for Classroom Teachers in Elementary/Secondary Schools and Estimated Supply of New Teacher Graduates: United States, Fall 1980 to Fall 1993[1]

Fall of Year	Total Estimated Teacher Demand	Total Estimated Demand For Additional Teachers	Estimated Supply of New Teacher Graduates[2]	New Supply As Percent Of Demand For Additional Teachers
1980	2,463	134	144	107.5
1981	2,430	115	141	122.6
1982	2,445	161	143	88.8
1983	2,462	164	146	89.0
		Projected[3]		
1984	2,457	143	146	102.1
1985	2,467	158	146	92.4
1986	2,483	165	144	87.3
1987	2,505	171	142	83.0
1988	2,517	162	139	85.8
1989	2,543	177	139	78.5
1990	2,580	188	139	73.9
1991	2,630	204	138	67.6
1992	2,687	215	137	63.7
1993	2,737	211	133	63.0

[1]Numbers are in thousands.

[2]Estimates for 1980 and 1981 are from National Education Association, Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1981-82, 1983. Other estimates developed by the National Center for Education Statistics.

[3]For methodological details, see Projections of Education Statistics to 1992-93, 1985.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Projections of Education Statistics to 1992-93, 1985, and unpublished tabulations (January 1985); and National Education Association, Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1981-82, 1983, copyrighted.

RETENTION

- People who leave the profession report overriding doubt about their ability to succeed with students. (Rosenholtz, 1984.)

- A teacher's success with students appears to be highly related to the teacher's sense of empowerment or efficacy -- a belief in his/her own ability to positively affect student performance.

- Some researchers estimate that about 50% of the people now in their first year of teaching will not be teaching seven years from now.

- Two-thirds to three-fourths of teachers who leave the profession do so in their first four years -- while losses still seem minimal, before they have invested large amounts of time, effort and psychic energy. (Rosenholtz, 1984.)

- Decisions to leave teaching seem tied to the absence of professional success in the early stages of teachers' careers. This is due to the lack of collegial interaction, isolationism, resource support for LEARNING, and assignment of new teachers to schools and curriculum which is least likely to enhance their learning.

- Poor working conditions (e.g., low administrative support, low participation in decision making, large class size, inadequate preparation time) interfere with teacher success and contribute to stress. (Bacharach.)

- Specific reasons for leaving tie directly to working conditions that negatively affect their professional performance: a lack of opportunity for professional growth and development, inadequate preparation time, conflict with principals or colleagues and the failure to deal effectively with student misbehavior. (Rosenholtz, 1984.)

- Recognition or approval from colleagues is a psychic reward that increases a teacher's likelihood of remaining in the profession. (Rosenholtz, 1984.)

- Harris survey sponsored by Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. in June, 1985 found:

  1) One in four public elementary and secondary school teachers believe he or she is likely to leave the teaching profession in the next five years.

  2) Six in 10 teachers considering leaving teaching mentioned low pay as a chief reason and four in 10 cited such conditions as excessive paperwork, nonteaching duties and overcrowding.

  3) Among teachers who said they had received awards, citations or special recognition for their teaching -- making them among the best and brightest in their profession -- 29 percent said they are very or somewhat likely to leave.

  4) Thirty-three percent of those who had other job options when they started teaching said that they intend to go into other professions, as did 36 percent of teachers in urban settings.

MOTIVATION TO IMPROVE PERFORMANCE

- Beyond its importance for competitive base salaries and stable career earnings, there is no evidence that money could be further used as a "stick" in the system to motivate teachers to improve their performance (Bacharach, 1985).

- There is no evidence that competition among teachers for scarce monetary resources will lead to improved quality of instruction. In fact, there is evidence that the opposite is true (Rosenholtz, 1984).

- Teachers will change their behavior when they believe that a change will enhance their professional growth and increase their effectiveness with students (Rosenholtz, 1984).

- Characteristics of more effective inservice programs are:

  1) Needs that teachers and administrators themselves define are targeted.

2) Inservice training is a continuous process and is integrated into the regular school day.

3) Training is flexible and practical enough to permit teachers to adapt what they learn to their particular classroom.

4) Formal training is followed by collegial exchange about the usefulness of what was taught.

5) Supporting materials and technical assistance help teachers apply and teach what they have learned.

6) Principals and teachers are committed to change (Rosenholtz, 1984).

- Simply rewarding good teachers on the basis of their classroom performance will do little to help the majority of teachers improve (Rosenholtz, 1984).

- Effective schools are those with "high expectations" for teachers as well as for students — and have culture, processes and leaders that constantly reinforce "norms of collegiality" and "norms of continuous improvement" (Wynne, 1981; Little, 1982; Cohen, 1982).

- The developmental needs of the vast majority of teachers and schools have not been addressed. Lack of "improvement" is not a matter of inadequate motivation but of insufficient means and opportunity. (Bacharach, 1985.)

- "The problem" [skills obsolescence] is invariably one of <u>organizational</u> obsolescence -- organizational structures and processes which create barriers to advancement and discourage initative, growth and acquisition of new skills. (Thompson and Dalton, 1974).

- Social scientists have suggested a variety of explanations for why "intrinsic motivation" may have such a powerful effect in occupations like teaching (Bacharach, Lipsky and Shedd, 1983). Their research leaves little room to doubt that jobs that provide <u>opportunities</u> for employees to feel personally responsible for their work, through the non-routine exercise of a variety of skills, thereby provide opportunities for employees to acquire a sense of personal competence and personal growth and actually <u>generate</u> the motivation to pursue those objectives (Hackman and Lawler, 1971).

- In light of the importance of intrinsic motivation, it is hardly surprising that researchers who have studied teachers over the course of their careers have found them eager to learn new skills, open to new methods and ideas, and "thriving" on new discoveries; such reports are consistently coupled with comments that indicate a desire to "reach" and benefit as many individual students as possible (Burden, 1982; Unruh and Turner, 1970; Gregorc, 1973).

- Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Frederic Herzberg's model of work motivation shed light on issues of motivation and teaching. The two models are portrayed in Table 8.

  Maslow explains work motivation in terms of needs ranging from basic needs to those of self actualization. Each need level must be fulfilled and maintained before the next higher need can be realized.

  Herzberg views the hierarchy of needs in terms of two groups of factors: hygiene factors and motivation factors. Hygiene factors are potential dissatisfiers and not directly related to work motivation. Motivation factors are directly related to work and are sources of work-oriented motivation. Such factors include ego status and self actualization. Herzberg believes that the lower level maintenance factors provide only motivation support and that organizations have typically focused much of their attention on lower needs with the hope that they would serve as motivators of performance. Instead, they have only minimized dissatisfiers.

  If organizations were to use the Maslow and Herzberg motivation theories to the greatest extent possible, they would strive to provide opportunities for higher levels of fulfillment such as those provided by the Career Development Model.

Table 8. Portrayal of Motivation Models by Maslow and Herzberg

Maslow Hierarchy of Needs	Herzberg Work Motivation
Self Actualization	Motivator Factors
Ego-Status	
Belonging	
Safety	Hygiene Factors
Basic	

Political Myths About Reforming Teaching

Reform advocates have proposed a number of remedies for the problems of teaching and education. In Political Myths About Reforming Teaching, Susan Rosenholtz explores ten popular assumptions made by education decision makers and reveals the mythical nature of the assumptions. A summary of the myths and her arguments appear below.

Myth 1: **Pay Teachers More And They Will Teach Better.**

"For most teachers the rewards of teaching are not at all extrinsic. Teachers instead value the intrinsic, psychic rewards that come from students' academic accomplishments and from confidence in their own ability to help students learn.

"Teachers seem motivated to change only when they believe that the attempt will enhance their effectiveness with students."

Myth 2: **Competition Among Teachers For Career Advancement And Higher Pay Is A Sound Way To Improve The Quality Of Their Service.**

"Because teachers' development of skills depends so heavily on collaborative exchange, it seems likely that competitive rewards will substantially thwart efforts at improvement. Competitive rewards may even accelerate professional isolation in schools and inhibit problem solving. In particular, where advancement depends heavily on the failure of others, sharing of teaching materials, methods or ideas is unlikely. It is entirely possible that teachers may conclude that success in this reward structure comes only at the price of positive collegial relations."

Myth 3: **Promotions And Incentive Pay Will Keep Good Teachers In Teaching.**

"Some researchers estimate that about 50% of the people now in their first year of teaching will not be teaching seven years from now. Two-thirds to three-fourths of teachers who leave the profession do so in their first four years."

"In sum, decisions to leave teaching seem tied to the absence of professional success in the early stages of teachers' careers. Therefore, neither promotions nor salary increases are likely to reduce attrition. More important, promotions and salary increases are designed to reward many years of professional success. Teachers who do not succeed early in their careers are not likely to endure years of continuing difficulty in the classroom in order to receive higher pay and promotions later."

Myth 4: **Career Ladders Will Encourage Teachers To Improve.**

"Career ladders will help improve teachers' classroom skills only if advancement is anchored securely in collaborative working arrangements and if promotions bring responsibilities for staff development. Under these conditions, the skills of teachers are likely to develop, and fewer teachers are likely to leave the profession. But simply rewarding good teachers on the basis of their classroom performances will do little to help the majority of teachers improve."

Myth 5: **Career Ladders And Incentive Pay Will Attract More Academically Talented People Into Teaching.**

"Individuals who today choose alternatives to teaching frequently cite low starting salaries and low status as their major reasons."

"The finding that low starting salaries and low occupational status discourage many talented college students from becoming teachers lends substance to the third assumption. Efforts should therefore be made to raise base pay for teachers and raise the status of the profession. However, as has been demonstrated earlier, simply raising salaries may do little to keep talented teachers in the profession; these same individuals are most likely to leave teaching early in their careers."

Myth 6: Teachers Who Are Promoted Up Career Ladders Can Evaluate Other Teachers For Promotion.

"Almost any reasonable person can be trained to monitor teachers' classroom performance. But placing the responsibility for monitoring in the hands of colleagues may have unintended negative consequences. This is because evaluation can be performed for two altogether different purposes: to make judgments about tenure or promotion or to provide teachers with information that will help them improve. Problems can arise when the same person carries out both functions. Teachers who risk negative judgments about promotion from colleagues or supervisors are not likely to seek assistance from them because the costs of revealing inadequacies are too high. Moreover, the evaluating teachers who exercise the objectivity required to recommend career decisions may repress the warmth, understanding and support they need to help their colleagues improve."

Myth 7: Since Almost Everyone Can Recall At Least One Great Teacher, The Characteristics of Great Teachers Are Easy To Identify.

"Studies that have examined ratings of teachers made by people outside teaching show that ratings by reasonably sophisticated observers are unrelated to student gains in achievement."

"Standards of excellence are crucial to educational reform because they provide targets for change. As noted earlier, schools today have no clear purpose. Teachers are left to find their own educational missions, wondering if their responsibilities are primarily cognitive, social or custodial. Only in rare instances do schools set explicit goals. Perhaps the current political and public interest in education will produce a clearer sense of purpose on which the priorities of teaching can be based."

"It is known that teachers who are good classroom managers spend more time instructing students. It is also known that interaction compels students' attention better than seat work. While good management and interactive teaching have been empirically linked to student learning, what constitutes appropriate content for a lesson is far less certain."

"Thus current knowledge lays a foundation for constructing standards of teaching. But the goals of teaching, the means to achieve those goals and the ways to measure successful teaching remain in disarray. It is clear that definitions must be constructed through the concerted efforts of the entire educational community."

Myth 8: **The Scores Students Make On Tests Are A Good Measure Of Teacher Effectiveness.**

"It hardly seems fair to hold teachers accountable for how much students learn when the major factors that influence learning are outside their control. For example, what students have learned before they reach the classroom has been estimated to account for as much as 71% of what they know. Among the other factors that influence learning over which the teacher has little say are the academic composition of the class, the instructional effectiveness of the school, class size, the motivation students receive from their peers, the resources of the school district and the match between curriculum and achievement tests."

"An additional problem is that teaching quality is not amenable to short-term monitoring. That is, the student achievement gains of individual teachers show marked instability from year to year. Researchers have calculated that reliable judgments of teacher effectiveness would require more than 20 years of monitoring test scores. At present, no statistical formula or computer model of effectiveness yields valid, reliable or practicable results."

Myth 9: **An Effective Teacher Is Equally Effective In All Settings.**

"On this point the research seems very clear: there is no one best way to teach, in terms of methods, behaviors or choice of instructional organization. A teacher's effectiveness is not uniform -- it depends heavily on specific situations and contexts. The same individual who teaches poorly in one setting (and is judged unsuccessful) may teach superbly in another. The many variables that affect student learning and the many different learning goals combine to require a full repertoire of teaching strategies."

Myth 10: Good Teachers Are Born, Not Made.

"With the proper evaluation tools, most ineffective teachers can be helped to improve."

CONCLUSIONS

Based on accumulated research and an exploration of many assumptions driving education reform, Susan Rosenholtz reached several conclusions which are summarized below.

1. The intrinsic satisfactions of working with students are far more likely to motivate teachers to improve than extrinsic rewards such as money.

2. Teaching success is in large measure determined by organizational conditions in schools. Isolation from fellow teachers and an absence of administrative support are the greatest impediments to learning to teach.

3. Competitive rewards for teaching excellence may accelerate professional isolation.

4. Teachers become most effective in settings that foster collaborative analysis and experimentation.

5. Teachers who do not experience success leave teaching.

6. Career ladders may increase teachers' acquisition of skills and reduce attrition if used as a vehicle for collaboration and staff development.

7. Recognizing talented teachers and giving them responsibility for staff development increases their intrinsic rewards and lessens the likelihood they will leave teaching.

8. Low starting salaries turns the academically talented away from teaching.

9. Staff development and decisions about promotions should be separate.

10. Standards of teaching excellence should be set by teaching professionals, be situationally determined and exclude standardized measures of student achievement.

11. With the proper evaluation tools, most ineffective teachers can be helped to improve.

Summary Highlights

A review of the previous research finds the following IMPLICATIONS:

1. Teachers' levels of pay, in terms of entry salaries and lifetime career earnings are NOT in keeping with reasonable expectations of professionals and are NOT commensurate with the level of education and training that teachers bring to their job.

2. Teachers need to have a high level of efficacy — a belief in their abilities and power to positively affect student performance.

3. Administrators and teachers need to treat education as a collegial effort directed toward common goals.

   - Administrators should maintain frequent contact with teachers and acknowledge their activities.

   - Administrators should promote joint goal setting schoolwide, closely monitor and evaluate programs and personnel, and promote formal and informal staff development.

   - Teachers should have the opportunity to put their skills to use in areas that correspond to their individual interests and career goals.

   - An overall culture of collaboration, communication and participation in decision making should exist in the school.

   - Frequent, professional dialogue among school personnel should occur.

   - Beginning teachers should be encouraged to seek out more experienced teachers for collegial support, advice and assistance.

   - Organizational conditions should be designed to prevent isolationism.

4. Teachers need autonomy to teach; that is, they need substantial discretion in carrying out their own work activities.

5. Organizational environment needs to support goal setting by teachers, participation in decision making by teachers, adequate resources, such as preparation time and material supplies, and opportunities for professional growth.

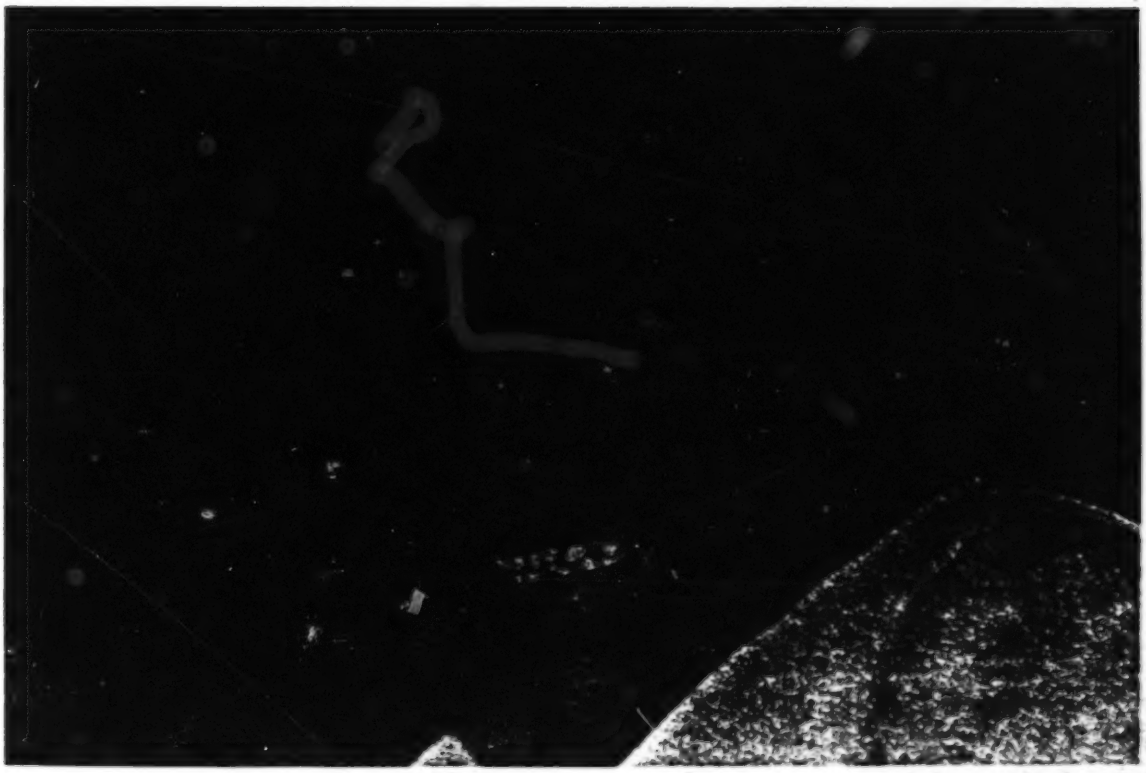
6. A career development program is needed which includes a system of professional growth. The system should be designed to monitor and provide feedback to individual teachers and help a teacher in her/his skill development.

7. Administrators need to provide instructional leadership which will require new responsibilities and skills. The instructional leadership role will have an impact on preparation and training of administrators.

8. Opportunities are needed for full staff involvement in the development, implementation and evaluation of programs.

PART II

The Work Of The Teacher Career Development Model



The Work Of The Teacher

To understand teaching as a career and its development, one must have some notion of what teachers do. What teachers do is difficult to characterize, but researchers generally agree that teaching is a complex process that occurs in situations that vary widely and unpredictably. (Lampert, 1985; Lortie, 1975; McPherson, 1972; Metz, 1978)

Out of this complexity emerges concentrated attention to the purposes or outcomes teachers are expected to achieve and the general steps or processes teachers follow in carrying out their work. The outcomes define the roles of teaching, and the processes define the functions of teaching.

Defining the work of the teacher enables us to discuss central elements of a new conceptual framework for teacher compensation systems. This framework identifies salient aspects of teaching as an occupation and career. It also provides perspectives about career development that may aid efforts in the design of complementary evaluation and professional development programs.

ROLES AND FUNCTIONS OF THE TEACHER

It is appropriate to first establish the nature of work in an organization, then identify the knowledge and skill needed to perform that work, and finally how that knowledge and skill are acquired. (London and Stumpf, 1982)

There are many ways of characterizing what teachers do. Their responsibilities can be defined in terms of the (a) purposes or outcomes that they are expected to achieve, and (b) the general steps or processes they follow in carrying out their work. There is, however, no general agreement on the purposes that teachers are meant to serve; for example, the outcomes they are expected to achieve, the steps they either do or should follow, or how best to characterize the wide variety of specific things that teachers do.

The situations teachers face vary widely and unpredictably, largely as a consequence of the nature of their work. Teaching involves intensive and extensive interaction with large numbers of other people, particularly

students, and the needs and abilities of their students themselves vary and are constantly changing.

Teachers are expected to promote equality and excellence, teach specific bodies of subject matter and promote acquisition of learning and skills. They also must respond to individualize students' particular needs, foster independence and creativity, and "maintain standards" and discipline. As a consequence, their relationship with students is sometimes that of manager to subordinates, sometimes that of counselor to clients, and sometimes that of artist to "canvas:" they work over, with, for and "on" their students, sometimes as individuals and sometimes as a group. (Bacharach, 1985)

In this context, three roles of teaching are widely acknowledged to exist.

- instructor
- classroom manager
- counselor

The instruction role encompasses those skills needed to determine, implement, and evaluate subject area goals, objectives and processes used in helping students acquire certain knowledge and skills.

Instruction could include such activities as formulating goals and activities, selecting material and equipment, identifying school and community resources (parental involvement), keeping records, budgeting, speaking, listening, communicating, observing, and writing tests.

Classroom Management is defined as those skills needed to organize and direct student activity.

Classroom Management could include such activities as formulating standards for student behavior, developing classroom routines and procedures, and identifying resources.

Counseling focuses on those skills used in meeting individual and group academic needs and motivational techniques.

Counseling could include such activities as formulating strategies for developing and understanding of the dignity and worth of self and other people and developing strategies for interaction among students.

Three functions of teaching also emerge from existing research. The functions are:

- planning,
- implementation, and
- evaluation.

Planning encompasses the design and selection of processes to be used to achieve some end. Implementation is the action stage of a plan in which one gives it practical effect. Evaluation means the review of plans and action to determine the degree of their success.

Both roles and functions are elements in every teacher's job, whether the teacher is a new practitioner or one with considerable experience.

If the three roles are listed vertically and the three functions horizontally:

	Functions		
Roles	Planning	Implementation	Evaluation
Instruction			
Classroom Management			
Counseling			

a grid can then be developed expressing nine decision-making skills. The complexity of the job emerges with greater clarity in Table 9 which allows one to consider roles and functions simultaneously as well as the skills required to execute the functions within each role.

Table 9. Basic Career Development Framework

Decision-Making Roles	Decision-Making Functions		
	Planning	Implementation	Evaluation
Instruction	Instructional Planning Skills	Instructional Implementation Skills	Instructional Evaluation Skills
Classroom Management	Management Planning Skills	Management Implementation Skills	Management Evaluation Skills
Counseling	Counseling Planning Skills	Counseling Implementation Skills	Counseling Evaluation Skills

The table shows teaching roles down the left side of the grid and teaching functions across the top of the grid. Major skills areas are identified where each role and function interact in the grid. For example, in the instructional role, a teacher plans, implements, and evaluates. The planning function of the instruction role requires instructional planning skills. One can work through the grid and identify in this way nine skill categories. These categories serve as a basic framework for describing what teachers -- all teachers -- do.

This leads to the conclusion that decision-making can be viewed as the primary teaching skill. The roles and functions of teaching remain constant over time. The style of decision-making changes. This change in form is called development, and development is viewed as it occurs along the continuum marked by three stages called establishment, adaptation, and extension. These stages provide, then, three developmental levels.

The existence of three different levels seems fair and reasonable, for one would not expect a beginning teacher to perform at the same developmental level established for the experienced teacher.

Each stage of decision-making can be used to describe three successive levels of career development. The levels are portrayed in Table 10.

Each stage is marked by a form of decision-making:

- Upon entry into the profession, teachers make decisions about how to <u>establish</u> their basic knowledge and skills in practice.
- As teachers gain experience, they make decisions about how to <u>adapt</u> their basic knowledge and skills to changing teaching situations through variation and integration.
- In time, teachers acquire decision-making powers that enable them to <u>extend</u> their knowledge and skills, leadership and innovation.

Table 10. Levels of Career Development

ESTABLISHMENT	ADAPTATION	EXTENSION
Application	Variation and Integration	Leadership and/or Innovation

It is apparent, then, that the development of skills by a teacher is a career-long process ... the progression of skills during practice of the profession. Our focus has been on the teaching profession for which one is explicitly trained and in which one works with some expectation or hope of permanency; that is one who trains to become a teacher and enters the field does so with the belief that a lifetime practice is possible given competent application of knowledge and skill.

The definition of career development clearly implies active promotion of teaching skills; that is, teachers make a conscious effort to further their skills, to bring into play more powerful ways of practicing their profession.

DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL

Defining roles that all teachers do and three different standards provide a Career Development Model that has implications for professional growth and evaluation and consists of nine decision-making skills:

Roles and Functions

1. Instructional planning skills
2. Instructional implementation skills
3. Instructional evaluation skills
4. Management planning skills
5. Management implementation skills
6. Management evaluation skills
7. Counseling planning skills
8. Counseling implementation skills
9. Counseling evaluation skills

and three developmental levels for each of the nine skills

1. establishment level
2. adaptation level
3. extension level.

The roles and functions define teaching as an occupation. The continuum define teaching as a career.

This framework focuses attention on decision-making skills and regards decision-making as changing in form over time and within a teaching career.

A teacher could be at any one of the three different developmental levels for each of the nine decision-making skills.

PART III
Career Development System

MODELS

A. Professional Growth and Evaluation

B. School Environment

C. Compenstion

Career Development System

The Career Development System consists of the career development model -- nine decision making skills and the three developmental levels and the three components of:

- Professional Growth/Evaluation
- School Environment
- Compensation

Implementation of a career development system requires commitment: commitment to change, to lead and to fund. It also requires commitment from all school employees -- teachers, education support personnel, administrators, board of education, and community.

Following are models and examples of changes which could be made in school districts to accomplish the objectives to

- Attract high quality and more individuals into the teaching profession
- Retain good teachers in the profession
- Motivate teachers to improve teaching skills

and thereby provide effective schools in the State of Arizona.

PROFESSIONAL GROWTH AND EVALUATION

Professional Growth

Professional Growth is the process of establishing, adapting, and extending one's skills and knowledge as a teacher. It is a career-long process at the core of which lie the decision-making powers of a teacher. Professional growth must be continuous and integrated into the collegial model. Growth implies that teachers are capable, that their decision-making powers change over time, and that organizations can promote, nurture, encourage, and enhance that growth and change.

In order to accommodate a professional development program, districts will need to develop flexible approaches to staffing, scheduling and facilities. Professional growth is a planned purposeful and deliberate activity to improve an individual's performance on the job.

The organizational structure must create opportunities for advancement and encourage initiative, growth and acquisition of new skills. The organizational structure must provide a climate that will encourage collegial interaction. Schools need to be organized so that teachers can engage in these activities as part of their work.

Professional growth must be designed for continuous improvement and not a remedial or deficit approach. A process of professional learning is established that is adaptive, concrete, tied to ongoing activities. This process gives teachers the skills to identify and solve problems.

Inservice training with teacher-proof packages and one-shot training by outside experts must be avoided.

In summary, professional growth programs must have the following characteristics:

1) All staff members are committed to change.

2) Developmental training is continuous and part of the regular work day.

3) Training is relevant and flexible enough to allow teachers to adapt it to their classroom needs.

4) Teachers themselves identify training needs.

5) Opportunities are provided to discuss and exchange ideas and implementation of the training.

6) Resources; materials, technical and financial, are provided to assist in implementing training.

7) Climate of collegiality and collaborative problem solving is established and continuous.

Evaluation

This framework for thinking about career development is based on three principles of teaching as an occupation and as a career. The principles are:

- Decision making is the central skill of teaching
- Decision making occurs in all skill areas that comprise the roles and functions of teaching.
- Decision making changes in form over time and within a teaching career.

The framework is also based on the assumption that individuals who enter teaching are competent to assume their teaching responsibilities. That is, they have been properly prepared to teach by institutions of higher education, they have been correctly certified by state teacher-certification agencies, and they have been carefully selected and placed by education agencies.

These principles and this assumption should underlie programs for the evaluation of professional teachers. Such programs should help teachers, individually and together, develop their professional decision-making skill through practice. This skill and this development are strongly associated with effective teaching and effective schools. For this reason, they should be the focus of teacher evaluation programs.

In education, two kinds of personnel evaluation may occur: summative evaluation and formative evaluation. Summative evaluation occurs at the end of some general effort such as at the end of the pre-tenure period. Information gathered for summative purposes is designed to serve personnel decisions made by an external audience such as the superintendent or Board of Education. Personnel decisions include the selection, placement, promotion, dismissal, or retirement of individuals.

Formative evaluation occurs during a period of activity in order to enhance acquisition of skills. Information gathered during formative evaluation is designed to serve the information needs of the people engaged in the activity. In the case of formative evaluation for teachers, the teachers themselves are the primary audience. The formative decisions made by teachers may address their specific skill strengths or weaknesses and may be used to design a range of professional development activities for an individual teacher or a group of teachers.

Career development models emphasize skill growth and career development. For this reason, the model requires a strong formative evaluation program that focuses attention on decision making in the nine skill categories and career growth beyond the establishment level as indicated by a teacher's:

- Decisions that reflect ability to adapt to the diversity and unpredictability of classroom teaching, and

- Decisions that indicate ability to extend skill through innovation that strengthens a teacher's skill and/or leadership that strengthens a school's overall educational program.

The framework discussed earlier promotes three developmental levels for career development, not just one:

1. A level for teachers at the Establishment level.

2. A level for teachers at the Adaptation level.

3. A level for teachers at the Extension level.

The existence of three developmental levels is a departure from current teacher evaluation practice which generally promotes one level. This departure seems both fair and reasonable, for one would not expect a beginning teacher to perform by the level established for career teachers. The existence of multiple levels is also strongly supported by research in occupation, work career, and organizational research. (See, for example, Hall, 1976.)

The design of an evaluation program for the career development model requires that criteria be generated. Criteria identify activities performed by every teacher in each of the nine skill categories identified earlier. For this reason, the criteria-setting process should occur at the district level and should involve teachers from every grade level and subject assignment in the district. Broad representation of this nature would help assure that the criteria identified are, in fact, activities common to all teachers.

The criteria should identify skills each teacher should have and reflect the kinds of decisions every teacher must make in the face of variety and uncertainty in teaching. Guidelines for the selection and specification of criteria include:

- Each criterion must be stated clearly in terms of behavior that can be observed or documented rather than in terms of purposes or ends to be accomplished.

- Each criterion must apply to every teaching assignment in the school or district covered by the career development system.

- Each criterion must specify a specific skill that is necessary, not just useful, for every teacher to have.

In summary, criteria must be:

- CLEAR - easily understood, without obscurity or ambiguity

- UNIVERSAL - pertinent to all

- NECESSARY - logically required.

Criteria should be written for each of the nine skill areas. For example, criteria for Instructional Planning Skills, the first cell in the role-function matrix, might include the following:

Example

Instructional Planning Skills Criteria:

1. Formulates subject area goals consistent with state and district goals and students' needs and abilities.

2. Constructs or adapts knowledge and skill objectives for students that are consistent with goals.

3. Constructs or adapts learning activities to meet objectives.

4. Sequences learning activities to meet objectives.

5. Selects materials and equipment appropriate to the learning activities within constraints of available resources.

6. Identifies ways and means of using parental assistance in the instructional program.

7. Identifies school and community resources for use in instructional program.

8. Develops a system for keeping records of class and individual progress.

These criteria by no means exhaust those possible for the Instructional Planning skill category, but they should give some idea of the kind of criteria that apply to <u>all</u> teachers.

After developing the criteria, the next step is to identify indicators that apply to individuals for each of the criterion. Indicators would be different for each developmental level. Indicators are designed to gather evidence that an individual has or has not met a specific criterion. Indicators would be expressed as leading questions whose answers provide evidence. Evidence can take many forms including interview responses, a portfolio, records, observation data, and audio-visual materials.

Example

Using Instructional Planning Skill, criteria 1: Formulates subject area goals consistent with state and district goals and students' needs and abilities.

INDICATORS:

ESTABLISHMENT	ADAPTATION	EXTENSION
(At the level of establishment we look for evidence that the teacher applies basic knowledge and skill in practice.)	(At the adaptation level we look for evidence of variation and integration.)	(At the extension level we look for evidence of leadership and/or innovations.)
1. What evidence do I have that I understand state and district goals for my class and subject area?	1. Do I have a variety of means to apply instructional planning criteria such that I have a choice in meeting a range of situations and circumstances?	1. How do I share my expertise in the area of instructional planning with other school and district personnel?
2. What evidence do I have of student needs and abilities?	2. Do I have alternatives available for handling unanticipated situations such as the failure of a plan or an unexpected interruption?	2. When do I work with others to improve our mutual use and knowledge of instructional planning skills?
3. Can I express broad goals in terms of subject, grade, student needs and abilities, etc?	3. Do my instructional planning activities match my philosophy of education; the policies of my school and district; my students' instructional needs and abilities; my students' physical, social, and emotional development; and sound educational methodology?	3. How do I seek to improve my expertise in instructional planning through experimentation or creative adaptation?
		4. How do I demonstrate the application of my personal scholarship to instructional planning skills?

METHODS OF SHOWING EVIDENCE:

1) portfolios
2) observation
3) conference
4) informal meetings (extension)
5) participation (extension)
6) other

The kinds of evidence necessary for each developmental level will vary for each of the three levels.

At the establishment level, the teacher provides evidence of having at least one way to apply the criteria. In contrast, at the adaptation and extension levels, the teacher gives evidence of multiple techniques.

The indicators at the adaptation level will be primarily the same for all the criteria in each of the decision-making roles, (instruction, management, and counseling). The indicators will be different for each of the three functions (planning, implementation, and evaluation).

Indicators at the extension level will be generic and may be used with all three roles and function, i.e. they may be used to demonstrate leadership and/or innovation in any or all of the three functions; planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Summary

1. Criteria are developed districtwide for all teachers in all nine decision-making skills. These criteria are the same for all three developmental levels.

2. Indicators are developed for each criterion.

   Establishment: indicators are different for each criterion in all nine skills.

   Adaptation: indicators are primarily the same for all criteria within each role. Indicators are different for functions.

   Extension: indicators are primarily the same for all criteria for all roles and functions.

3. The actual development and how criteria and indicators relate to each other would be developed at the district level. As an example, indicators could be developed:

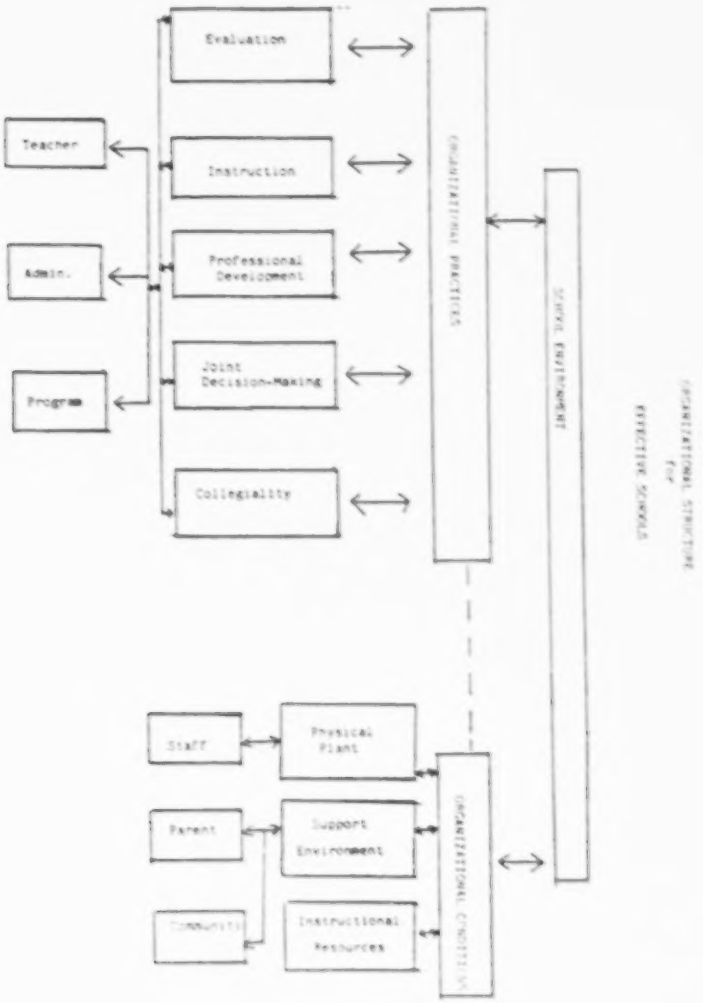
   a) for districtwide implementation for all teachers
   b) by subject or grade level implementation for those teachers, or
   c) between the teacher and the evaluator.

SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

An effective school system is dependent upon the school environment. An attempt to manipulate one component of this system impedes rather than promotes the achievement of an effective educational system.

Past attempts at educational reform have failed to take into account the interdependency of all components in the school environment.

The following model of an organizational structure for an effective school system illustrates these interdependencies.



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Organizational Structure And Practices

Changes in the organizational structure and practices will have an impact on the school environment and the traditional school setting.

If these changes are to have a positive impact, teachers, administrators, school boards and the community must be committed to change and work collaboratively to develop and implement them.

Achieving a collegial atmosphere for effective schooling practices will require all constituents to break from some traditions and, be committed to the change.

IDEAS...

Following are some ideas and possibilities for changing the school environment and promoting extensive collegial interaction. The degree of departure from the norm would vary within each district.

- INSTRUCTIONAL TEAMS

  Five to eight members on a team with an instructional leader who is relieved of some classroom responsibilities. Teams meet periodically and often. Team leaders are responsible for coordination and ongoing evaluation of program and team member's formative evaluations. The principal has the responsibility for the overall direction and supervision.

- COLLABORATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING

  Collaborative goal setting and decision making procedures need to be established to involve all the staff in establishing goals, discipline procedures, and a process for collaborative decision making.

- PROFESSIONAL WORK DAY

  Various configurations of teachers need to meet on a regular basis to have continual dialogue on: program planning; implementation and evaluation; student performance; district and building goal setting; policy development; curriculum development; professional growth needs.

  Scheduling and content of meetings must have involvement and commitment of the teachers to be effective.

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- EARLY DISMISSAL

  Change state statute to allow for early dismissal of students for professional growth opportunities. The early dismissal day would count as a full day for state aid purposes.

- EXTENDED CONTRACTS FOR ALL

  All teachers' contracts could be extended with proportional pay to provide for a day(s) for planning and evaluation at specific intervals. For example, after every three weeks of student attendance, teachers would have a day for individual and group planning, evaluation, and professional growth. There are various configurations of this concept.

- OPTIONAL EXTENDED CONTRACTS

  Districts would give to teachers extended contracts for curriculum development, participation in skill development sessions, etc.

- NON-INSTRUCTIONAL DUTY ASSISTANCE

  Employ additional staff to relieve teachers of non-instructional duties.

- TEACHER ON ASSIGNMENT

  Eliminate the number of "administrative positions" and employ "teachers on assignment" to be the curriculum coordinator, specialist -- for a specific period of time, not to exceed two years. These teachers would need to be at the extension level on the Career Development Model and would receive the same teacher pay.

- PROFESSIONAL GROWTH TEAM

  Teams of teachers are formed to assist each other in career development.

- COOPERATIVE TEACHING

  One additional teacher is employed for each team. Each teacher is provided release time for professional growth opportunities on a rotating and scheduled basis.

The above are ideas and are not in detail. Implications of some of the above could have impact on who the teaching profession attracts and who remains in the profession.

Models For Career Development Compensation Plan

Following are five models for a Career Development Compensation System. These models integrate compensation and performance. Some of the models are the existing salary schedule and supplement, others replace the existing salary schedule.

Just as there are different configurations of the single salary schedule in each district, there could also be different configuration and implementation of the Career Development Compensation Plan.

MODEL 1

ESTABLISHMENT	ADAPTATION	EXTENSION
1.x	1.5x	2.0x
establishment	adaptation	extension
EXISTING SALARY SCHEDULE	How to read Model 1.	

The Establishment level for teachers would be essentially as it now exists, but with the recommendation that the beginning salary be improved to agreed upon minimums and based on education and experience. A teacher at the Establishment level would be paid according to his/her placement on the single salary schedule based upon education and experience. When a teacher moves to the Adaptation level by completing certain achievements, the existing salary based on the education/experience salary schedule is multiplied by 1.5. In other words, if a teacher was earning a $20,000 annual salary, he/she would be paid $30,000 when moving to Adaptation. Similarly, when a teacher achieved the Extension level, the salary would be multiplied by the factor 2, or doubling the salary the teacher would be earning on the salary schedule. Placement and movement on the salary schedule would continue.

The net effect would be that a teacher could earn as much as twice the maximum on the single salary schedule.

MODEL 2

ESTABLISHMENT	ADAPTATION	EXTENSION
establishment	Salary + $3,000 adaptation	Salary + $4,000 additional (Total $7,000) extension

How to read Model 2.

As in Model 1, the existing salary schedule would form the base salary for the Establishment level of a teacher's development. When the teacher reached the Adaptation level, $3,000 would be added to each step of the existing salary schedule for this level. Similarly, when the teacher reached the Extension state, an additional $4,000 would be added to the existing level for this teacher or a total of an additional $7,000 from the earnings on the single salary schedule.

If a teacher were earning $20,000 on the single salary schedule, when he/she achieves the Adaptation level, $3,000 would be added to his/her existing salary schedule bringing the teacher's salary to $23,000. When that same teacher reached the Extension level, an additional $4,000 is added for a total of $27,000.

MODEL 3

Single Salary Schedule

		Education				
		BA	BA+15	MA	MA+15	MA+30
E	1	$a-$b	$y-$z	$w-$x	.....	.....
X	2	$c-$d	.	.	.	.
P	3	$e-$f	.	.	.	.
E	4	.	.	.	.	.
R	5	.	.	.	.	.
I	6	.	.	.	.	.
E	7	.	.	.	.	.
N	8	.	.	.	.	.
C	9	.	.	.	.	.
E	10	.	.	.	.	.

How to read Model 3.

In this model we, again, use the existing salary schedule as the starting point. However, instead of a single figure on the salary schedule, each step would have a range. For example BA (step 1) would be $22,000-$24,000 instead of just $22,000.

BA (step 2) could be, for example, $23,000-$25,000, etc.

Year	BA
1	$22,000 - 24,000
2	$23,000 - 25,000
3	$24,000 - 26,000
4	$25,000 - 27,000
.	.
.	.
.	.

Placement and movement on the single salary schedule would be as it currently exists.

Salaries may overlap from step to step. Teachers could not be reduced in salary because of placement or movement.

BA

	Establishment	Adaptation	Extension
Step 1	$22,000	$23,000	$24,000

A teacher on step 1 receiving $22,000 would receive $23,000 when he/she reaches the adaptation level.

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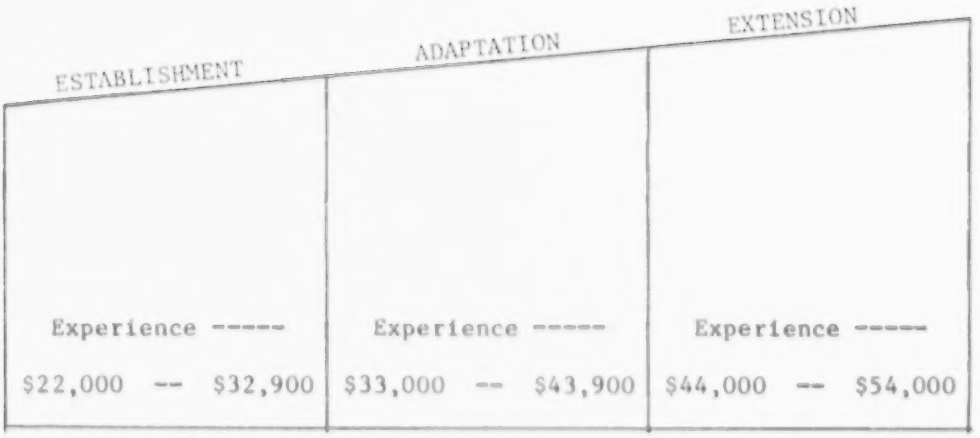
MODEL 4



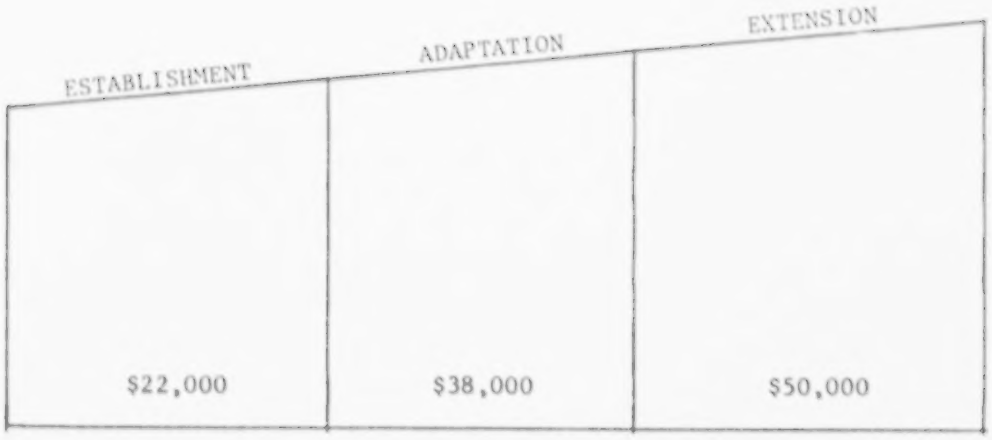
How to read Model 4.

This model replaces the single salary schedule. Each level has a range. The salary a teacher would receive within a level would be determined by years of experience at that level. For example, year 1 at the Establishment level could be $22,000, year 2 at the Establishment level could be $23,000, year 3 - $24,000, etc. If, in year 4, the teacher met the criteria to move to the Adaptation level, his/her salary would be $33,000, 2nd year at the Adaptation level would $34,000, etc.

Other factors besides experience could determine the salary within the range at each of the three levels, for example, education or skills.

For movement to the second and third level, a teacher may need to demonstrate he/she is at the Adaptation level in 7 out of the 9 decision making skills. To move to the Extension level, a teacher may need to demonstrate he/she is at the Extension level in 5 out of the 9 decision making skills.

MODEL 5



How to read Model 5.

This model replaces the single salary schedule. It is similar to Model 4, except that it does not have a range at each of the three levels.

Movement to Adaptation and Extension would be based on skill development.

Teachers would not receive automatic annual increases except those negotiated.

If career earnings are compared between Model 4 and Model 5 over a ten year period; three years at establishment, four years at adaptation, and three years at extension, career earnings are higher for Model 5.

	Model 4	Model 5
Establishment	$ 69,000	$ 66,000
Adaptation	$138,000	$152,000
Extension	$135,000	$150,000
Total	$342,000	$368,000

The Approach

Developing A Model

How would a district develop and implement a Career Development Compensation Plan?

A project of this magnitude cannot be rushed into. It is not a single year process but minimally a five year endeavor with constant evaluation and revision. Much time and money will be needed to implement school reform.

First and immediate is to raise starting salaries and provide increases for career level salaries.

Second, develop a model. All three areas; professional growth/evaluation, school environment and compensation must be addressed.

	Professional Growth/ Evaluation	School Environment	Compensation
Year 1	Legislation adopted for development and implementation of program. Plans developed and implemented for passage of aggregate spending limit.		
Year 2	Voluntary participation by districts Development of evaluation and Professional Growth System Teacher involvement and approval	Voluntary participation by districts Development of program Implementation where possible Teacher involvement and approval	Starting salaries increased and a minimum percentage for all teachers
Year 3	Implementation of plan Evaluation of plan and revisions	Implementation of plan Evaluation of plan and revisions	Development of performance-based Compensation Plan and criteria for advancement and placement Teacher involvement and approval

Year 4	Ongoing	Ongoing	Implementation of performance based compensation Evaluation of plans and revisions
Year 5	Ongoing	Ongoing	Ongoing

PART IV
Legislative Recommendations

Legislative Recommendations

Development and implementation of a career development system necessitates support from the Arizona State Legislature and ultimately the voting citizenry of Arizona.

The legislature must be responsive to the needs of teachers and students if Arizona is to have effective schools and quality education.

Career Development System

1. Participation in this plan is voluntary for both the district and the teacher and at the district option. Teachers must approve district participation in the plan by 70%.

2. The Career Development Model (9 decision-making skills and three developmental levels) must be used.

3. Teachers and their representative organization must be meaningfully involved in the development, implementation and evaluation of the plan. Teachers must approve the plan and any changes to the plan by 70% prior to its implementation.

4. The district must include in the plan a process for an ongoing and periodic review of the plan.

5. An appeal procedure must be included.

6. Career Development System must be approved by the State Board of Education in order to receive funding.

7. The State of Arizona must adequately fund school districts which choose to pilot and implement a Career Development System.

Professional Growth/Evaluation

1. Professional growth component must be developed and included in the Career Development System. The program must: be targeted at the needs teachers and administrators themselves define, be integrated into the regular school day, provide materials and technical support, include opportunities for peer assistance, extended contracts, collegial exchange.

2. The Career Development Model (9 decision-making skills and three developmental levels) must be used.

3. Criteria, indicators, and procedures will be developed at the district level.

4. Criteria developed must meet the following requirements:

   a. Each criterion must be stated as clearly and as specifically as possible, and should be stated in terms of behaviors that can be observed or documented rather than in terms of purposes or ends to be accomplished.

   b. Each criterion must apply to each and every teaching assignment in the school or district covered by the career development system.

   c. Each criterion must specify a skill that is necessary, not just useful, for every teacher to possess.

5. Program for formative evaluation must be developed and incorporated into the system. Teachers must play a central role in the formative evaluation process. Persons who serve as formative evaluators shall not be the same persons who make summative judgements for compensation and promotion decisions.

6. Evaluators must have 100 hours of initial training in the district's evaluation system with additional training annually. Training must include clinical supervision skills, human relations skills, and management and leadership skills.

School Environment

1. Procedures must be established for substantive and demonstrable employee participation in decision-making, i.e. goal setting, student discipline procedures, policy development, evaluation, compensation.

2. Organizational structure and practices must be established to promote collegial interaction.

3. Facilities need to be adaptable, as feasibly possible, to provide for common areas and promote collegial interaction.

4. Project must include a program to provide release time to teachers to visit and observe other classrooms, attend conferences and workshops and other opportunities for collegial interaction.

5. Administrators must receive training in instructional leadership, i.e., management theory, effective schools, communication skills, evaluation theory.

6. Procedures must be established for evaluation of administrators including a teacher assessment component.

Compensation

A. SALARY INCREASES FOR ALL DISTRICTS

1. Increase the minimum salary for all full time teachers to $22,000 in 1987-88.

2. Provide funding for a minimum percentage increase for all teachers in 1987-88.

B. PERFORMANCE BASED FOR VOLUNTARY DISTRICTS

1. Evaluation system must be implemented for a minimum of one year prior to the development of performance based compensation plan.

2. Performance based compensation plan may replace the single salary schedule or be a supplement to the single salary schedule.

3. The distinction and correlation between formative and summative evaluations must be clearly defined.

4. Criteria for the nine decision-making skills and the indicators for placement and movement on the three levels shall be determined by the district with involvement and approval of teachers. It must be necessary to reach career level earnings within ten years without leaving the classroom. There must be no quotas on the number of teachers who might be promoted or the number on each level.

5. Salaries for the three levels shall be determined by the district with involvement of teachers.

6. No teacher's salary will be reduced.

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